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ABSTRACT

Factors related to the extraordinary growth and development of school libraries in the United States between 1945 and 1980 are reviewed in this report, which describes the establishment of standards for school library media centers, Knapp Foundation funding of school library projects, federal funding of school libraries, the professional certification of school library media specialists, the development of educational technology, and the participation of school libraries in networking. The results of a 1974 study of school libraries conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) are presented in conjunction with a discussion of standards published in 1975 in "Media Programs: District and School." These standards cover school library media center staff, collections, and facilities, while survey results reported include hours of service, operating expenditures, the extent to which media programs complied with standards, and the extent of growth of the school library media center concept. Current trends briefly described include continued research, the development of systematic methods of planning and evaluation, the updating of selection criteria, and the assessment of alternative administrative structures, particularly the community/school or school/public library. A 26-item bibliography concludes the report. (Author/ESR)

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# SCHOOL LIBRARIES IN THE UNITED STATES SINCE 1945

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

School libraries experienced phenomenal growth and development in the years following World War II as part of the overall expansion and innovation occurring in elementary and secondary schools throughout the nation. The entire educational climate encouraged change. Many veterans returning from World War II took advantage of the educational benefits available to them. Nonveterans, too, enrolled in colleges and universities in unprecedented numbers. The college graduates of the 1950s and 1960s valued their educations and the desirable and prestigious positions they held in the professions, business, and industry. These highly educated young people formed the articulate spearhead for a nationwide movement demanding excellence in public education, a movement that had its roots in the long-held belief of American parents that education was the key to a better way of life for their children than they themselves had enjoyed.

Educators, too, were concerned about quality education and experimented with curriculum reform and innovative teaching methods. A new and more sophisticated approach to the teaching of mathematics was followed by the introduction of the inquiry method of teaching social studies. Instructional methods evolved from an emphasis on learning facts to an emphasis on learning how to learn. The teacher-centered classroom which depended upon the textbook as the basic instructional resource gave way to more learner-centered educational programs. Concept formation and problem-solving skills became widespread, though elusive, educational goals.

As both teachers and students depended less upon the textbook as the basic learning resource, school districts began to establish new school libraries and to expand those already existing in order to provide students and teachers with a variety of easily accessible learning resources.

This growing awareness at the local level of the need for developing library collections and facilities coincided with concern at the national level for the inadequacy of school libraries throughout the country. The U.S. Office of Education, in a document entitled *Public School Library Statistics* for 1958-1959, reported that approximately half of the nation's schools had no library at all. The situation was even more serious than the statistics indicated, however, because many of the schools with libraries did not have the services of a qualified librarian. Moreover, two-thirds of the elementary schools had no library, and, even in schools with libraries, collections averaged fewer than five books per student. During the next few years, momentous events occured that resulted in a dramatic increase and expansion of school libraries. In 1960, the American Association of School Librarians (AASL), a division of the American Library Association (ALA), developed a new set of national standards which were to have national, state, and local impact.[1] The Knapp Foundation financed the Knapp School Libraries Project which began to establish demonstration school libraries in 1963.[2] The Federal government, which had provided funding for school library materials to support the teaching of science, mathematics, and foreign languages through the National Defense Education Act of 1958 greatly increased the amount of funding for school libraries through passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.[3] These events set in motion a decade of extraordinary growth in school libraries.

The rate of growth of school libraries decelerated in the 1970s as school systems across the country reduced budgets in an era of fiscal austerity that affected financial support of nearly all public services and institutions. The gains of the previous decade were not lost, however. School libraries remained open, although the level of financial support generally allowed for little more than replacement of materials and minimum staffing.

The situation of school libraries at the beginning of the 1980s indicates the degree to which school libraries and the entire system of public education are subject to the prevailing attitudes of the American people. In the mid-1960s, the mood of the nation was expansive; but Americans now seem more interested in holding on to past gains. People feel threatened by inflation and discouraged because large expenditures of funds have not solved the nation's social and economic problems.

The importance of retaining a base level of support cannot be overemphasized, however. American school children are receiving library service superior to that available to past generations, and school library media specialists have the opportunity to consolidate their gains and to plan

strategies that will insure future growth and development. The dramatic events of the 1960s probably will not be repeated in the near future, but a new generation of school library media specialists is working to build a solid foundation for future development. Essential building blocks in this edifice are the regularly updated, carefully articulated standards for school library collections and services; support from private foundations; and consistent, substantive financing from federal, state, and local governments, which is the decisive factor in the success of all public school library programs.

Other concerns integral to planning for school library media center development are certification of media center personnel, development of educational technology, networking, research, and the need for systematic evaluation of media programs.

## STANDARDS FOR SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA CENTER PROGRAMS

The purpose of published standards is to state goals and objectives and to define the personnel, collection, and facilities to implement these goals. Published statements of national standards for school library media center programs have been effective in informing the public of school library deficiencies and needs and in securing support to improve school library programs.

Beginning with *Standard Library Organization and Equipment for Secondary Schools*,[4] commonly known as the "Certain Report," in 1920, six statements of standards have been published. Both quantitative and qualitative objectives were advocated in varying degrees by the committees responsible for writing these standards.

The first Certain Report assessed the status of post-World War I high school libraries and found them to be highly inadequate to support the secondary education program. The report recommended specific quantitative standards as a means of providing essential library services. The professional role of the school librarian was stressed, and the concept of a school library media center was articulated. These early standards recommended that the school library serve as coordinating center to provide direct access to all of the school's learning materials, including aids for visual instruction.

A second Certain Report, *Elementary School Library Standards*,[5] appeared in 1925, but, unlike the report on secondary schools, it had little influence. The American public was not yet prepared to accept the need for libraries in elementary schools.

In 1945, the ALA Committee on Post-War Planning published *School Libraries for Today and Tomorrow*.[6] This document effectively emphasized the role of both elementary and secondary school libraries as integral to the total educational program of the school.

The decade of the 1960s ushered in a new era for school libraries. The concern of the nation for excellence in education created an atmosphere highly receptive to a new set of national standards developed by AASL in cooperation with nineteen other professional associations. *Standards for School Library Programs* appeared at a propitious time and received resounding response from the schools.

Excitement concerning the potential of educational technology followed the publication of the 1960 standards. Closed-circuit television, programmed instruction, and innovative teaching approaches were all conducive to the development of library programs. Generous federal and private funding made possible the expansion of collections and the founding of numerous new libraries. The 1960 standards, which recommended the integration of print and audiovisual materials and stated quantitative standards for books, software, and equipment, were consistent with the national goal of excellence in education.

The two most recent sets of standards, *Standards for School Media Programs* (1969)[7] and *Media Programs: District and School* (1975),[8] further developed the role of the media center with programs that have become increasingly comprehensive. The later standards have become more theoretical in approach as they continue to develop the concept of the school library media center. In addition, the responsibilities of media personnel have been identified, and media terminology defined.

The successive sets of standards published since 1920 have been responsible in great part for the growth of the school library movement in the United States.

## THE KNAPP SCHOOL LIBRARIES PROJECT

An article entitled "Is Your Child a Victim of the Book Gap?," which appeared in *This Week* magazine as part of the National Library Week publicity program in 1961, caught the interest of C. E. Stouch, the president of the Knapp Foundation. As a result, he asked the representatives of AASL to draw up a plan of a demonstration project that might help solve the problem of inadequate school libraries. The Knapp Foundation financed a $1,130,000 nationwide demonstration project spanning the years 1963 to 1968.

*Realization: The Final Report of the Knapp School Libraries Project* stated that five elementary and three secondary schools which had already met some of the 1960 standards were selected from eight states, along with cooperating teacher education institutions, and were given approximately $40,000 to $100,000 to further

implement standards and establish programs and services of optimum educational value according to the needs of the individual schools. The goals of the project were (1) to demonstrate the value of school library programs, services, and resources that fully meet the national standards for school libraries; (2) to promote improved understanding and use of library resources on the part of teachers and administrators by relating the demonstration centers to teacher education programs in nearby colleges; (3) to guide and encourage citizens from as many communities as possible in the development of their own library programs through planned activities, enabling them to study demonstration centers; and (4) to increase interest and support for school library development among educators and citizens generally by disseminating information about the demonstration programs and evaluating their effectiveness in reaching the stated goals.

A field worker, who was a faculty member from the teacher education institution, was employed half-time to coordinate visits to the demonstration school. More than sixteen thousand visitors, among whom were teachers, librarians, and administrators, witnessed the libraries in action and visited classrooms using library materials in instructional programs.

In November 1967, the Knapp Foundation granted the ALA $1,163,718 for a second five-year project, this time to study media center personnel. Initiated in 1968, the School Library Manpower Project selected 694 public and private elementary and secondary schools according to criteria of excellence which required the school libraries to meet twelve factors as evidence that they possessed high-quality programs. These schools became respondents to the AASL's *Task Analysis Survey Instrument* in which were listed in scrambled order, three hundred tasks performed by library personnel.[9] The method used for the questionnaire, analysis of the response, and a regrouping of the responses under twelve categories appeared in the publication *School Library Personnel Task Analysis Survey*, which was prepared by the National Education Association and published by the ALA in 1967.[10] The result of the task analysis survey of phase one was *Occupational Definitions for School Library Media Personnel*, a document that covered the nature and scope, chain of supervision, major duties, and knowledge required for four media center positions: head of the media center, director of a district program, library media specialist, and technician.[11]

Phase two involved education and recruitment for school librarianship in six selected institutions of higher learning through experimental programs in library education. Reports of the programs have been compiled in the publication *Curriculum Alternative: Experiments in School Library Media Education*.[12]

The Knapp project gave a tremendous boost to the growth of programs and services by tangibly offering aid in the form of literature, consultative assistance, research results, and models. Private projects offer libraries the necessary encouragement to experiment with innovative programs and to develop in new directions.

## FEDERAL FUNDING FOR SCHOOL LIBRARIES

Educational systems are supported mainly by local and state taxes. Since a school system may fare well or ill financially, according to per capita income, for example, school libraries may show a wide divergence in the services and resources they are able to offer. To offset inadequate budgets, special regional and local funds are occasionally made available. Professional organizations or community or business groups may donate money for special media center projects such as was available for the Knapp project. The major source of financial support for many school libraries, however, is federal aid. Federal funding helps poorer school libraries become more equitable with those located in wealthier school districts by providing for library resources and for training media center personnel. Federal funding has also enabled the establishment of numerous new media centers across the nation.

In 1958, following the launching of Sputnik, legislative attention in this country riveted on the educational system and spurred passage of bills to enable the United States to compete more favorably with the Soviet Union in scientific achievement. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 allocated funds for the purchase of books in math, science, and foreign languages, and in successive years included books in the humanities.[13] The act benefited libraries indirectly by offering matching grants to local school districts for printed and audiovisual materials and for laboratory equipment.

Title II-B of the Higher Education Act of 1965 was passed in 1968.[14] It aided school libraries by providing for the training of professional personnel in library science and has continued to provide support for research and for training minority persons in the profession in recent years.

The most profound piece of legislation affecting the development of media centers occurred in April 1965 with the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. This time, the bill was a culmination of legislation to equalize educational opportunities for school children despite cultural, racial, or economic differences. It became the major source of new funds for school libraries. The bill contained five sections, several of which benefited the school library indirectly. Title I provided special assistance to the educationally dis-

advantaged, including special remedial reading programs. Title III provided funding for equipment and materials for exemplary instructional programs, including media projects. Title V strengthened state departments of education to implement the program, thereby providing for additional supervisory personnel. The most significant section for the development of school libraries was Title II, which benefited school libraries directly.

Title II, for the first time, specifically mentioned the school library. Reverberations from this landmark piece of legislation were felt nationally. Title II made funding available for public and nonpublic schools in the fifty states, the District of Columbia, Guam, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific. It made available sizable grants for the acquisition of library books, textbooks, and other instructional media. Administration of the program was provided for at the state level. The bill included a special-purpose grant portion to provide for demonstration centers. It provided training for library specialists. The first fiscal year saw an appropriation of $100 million and the establishment of thousands of new media centers.

The act was a five-year measure designed to increase appropriations until $200 million was reached for fiscal year 1970. Unfortunately, successive presidents reacted to economic tightening by drastically slashing funding for libraries. School libraries were given a reprieve when Congress recognized their importance to the educational system and continued support of Title II with $50 million in 1969 and $42.5 million in 1970.[15]

In 1974, Congress passed Public Law 93-380, replacing Titles II and III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and Title II of the National Defense Education Act with a consolidated approach. The new title, IV-B, the Library and Learning Resources Program, was designed to provide more flexibility in the use of funds and to extend the program through 1978. The program provided for equipment, print and nonprint materials, and testing and counseling services in areas where local taxes were insufficient to provide quality education.[16]

Supplementary funding of school libraries through federal aid does not abrogate the financial responsibility of the state and local school district for ongoing operational costs. However, without such federal assistance the school library would most probably not have enjoyed the phenomenal growth of the 1960s and would perhaps still be operating on the periphery of the educational system. Federal recognition of the importance of library resources to the educational program helps to insure the continued existence of the media center.

## PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATION

No national agency is responsible for establishing certification requirements for school library media specialists. Because each state sets its own requirements for certification, a wide range and diversity of requirements exist. The confusion is compounded by multiple sets of certification requirements *within* states and by a variety of titles for qualified school library media center personnel. Moreover, certification requirements are constantly changing as some states try to upgrade standards by requiring additional course work in education, library studies, and educational technology.[17]

Units of college and university course credit hours have been the accepted standard measure for setting certification requirements. The following data (current as of January 1975) illustrate the wide range in semester hours of library/media course work required in addition to or as part of the Bachelor's program of study:

11 states require fewer than 18 hours of media education
19 states require 18 hours
5 states require more than 18 semester hours
14 states require 24 semester hours
3 states require more than 24 semester hours
20 states require 30 or more semester hours in media education

Multiple sets of certification requirements within states explain the number of different requirements adding up to more than fifty.

In recent years, several states have introduced the competency-based approach for educating school media personnel. No credit hours are specified, but the student is required to demonstrate competencies or proficiencies in specific areas of library and media education. Another current approach to certification is the credit-competency combination. States adopting this approach prescribe specified credit hours of preservice professional education in which the student is expected to develop the required competencies and proficiencies.

The professional associations have attempted to bring order out of the chaos of certification requirements by developing guidelines for use by state certification agencies. Both AASL's *Certification Model for Professional School Media Personnel* and the report of the Association for Educational Communica-

tions and Technology's Certification Task Force recommended competency-based certification requirements.

AASL identified seven areas of competencies for professional school library media personnel: relation of media to instructional systems; administration of media programs; selection of media; utilization of media; production of media; research and evaluation; and leadership and professionalism. Each of these areas of competencies was subdivided into more discrete statements of competency.

The Association for Educational Communications and Technology has both technical and professional media personnel in its membership. The association's guidelines, therefore, identify three levels of competency: (1) entry or aide positions; (2) middle or technician positions; and (3) advanced or specialist positions. Within each level of competency, the task force included nine basic media functions: organization management, personnel management, research/theory, design, production, evaluation/selection, support/supply, utilization, and utilization/dissemination. A detailed list of specific competencies for each general competency area is appended to the task force report.

Neither the guidelines nor the concept of competency-based certification requirements has gained nationwide acceptance. Although there is considerable interest in competency-based certification, the established system of using college and university course credit hours as the basic measure for certification remains the standard practice in most of the fifty states.

## DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

Educational technology was developed much later than the technology used to support other professions and fields of endeavor.[18] Educational policies and instructional methods are conservative in outlook and approach. The teacher-centered classroom remains the norm, although there is a discernible change toward a learner-centered methodology. Continued development of educational technology, coupled with widespread implementation of the school library media center concept, are influential factors in facilitating this movement toward a more learner-centered approach to education.

Educational technology is primarily a post-World War II development. Films and other audiovisual materials were used in American classrooms prior to 1945, but teachers thought of them as "audiovisual aids"—supplementary devices used occasionally to introduce an instructional unit, impart additional information, or help slow learners understand abstract concepts. Educators did not perceive of these "aids" as integral components in the instructional process.[19]

Films, mockups, simulations, and other forms of instructional technology were used in World War II in the training of servicemen. Training of a vast civilian military force without an adequate cadre of professional military personnel required new and more effective training methods. The military did not only produce training films and other forms of instructional technology; the armed forces also studied the effectiveness of these instructional devices designed for massive, rapid training programs.[20] The successful wartime utilization of technology in facilitating mass learning was an influential factor in the growth of audiovisual materials and equipment following World War II.

In the years immediately following the war, and continuing through the 1950s, audiovisual materials were again used in response to a crisis situation. The "war babies" poured into the schools, overcrowding classrooms and creating a demand for teachers that the teacher training institutions could not meet. Faced with large classes of young children and a severe shortage of qualified teachers, school administrators, many of whom were veterans of World War II, looked to the audiovisual field for assistance.[21]

Audiovisual specialists responded quickly. The 16mm film and other instructional aids were improved, and new audiovisual formats were developed. Educational television, 8mm instructional films, audiotapes, overhead transparencies, and filmstrips were among the "new" audiovisual materials introduced into the classroom. Materials not requiring the use of equipment—books, pamphlets, magazines, games, specimens, realia, maps, and globes—were utilized by teachers in new and imaginative ways. Kits combined a variety of learning materials on a topic into one compact and efficient package. Computer-assisted instruction (CAI), introduced on an experimental basis in the 1960s, seemed by the late 1970s to be on the verge of providing a variety of self-instructional programs from the sophisticated PLATO system to less complex programs that could be used on home computers.

In the 1960s and 1970s, educators began to develop instructional systems.[22] In this systematic approach to instruction, educational media were no longer conceived of as "audiovisual aids" but as components in instructional systems.[23] The great advantage of an instructional system is that the learner does not fail. The system is designed so that a student masters one specific unit at a time (unit mastery) and provides for opportunities to repeat the unit, ideally with a variety of instructional methods and media, until he/she attains mastery.

The interrelationship between systematic instructional design and the school library media center is readily apparent. Effective instructional design presupposes a large, diverse, organized central collection staffed with professional and technical personnel qualified to assist and advise the teaching faculty.

## NETWORKING

School libraries are relative latecomers to the scene of networking. In the late 1950s, public libraries established arrangements for resource-sharing. Academic institutions also formed networks of shared resources. School libraries showed acceptance of the concept with the establishment of the regional education service center in most states by the 1960s. Specialized networks for particular purposes such as acquisitions, central cataloguing, and production facilities also emerged. In the 1975 standards, *Media Programs: District and School*, networks are formally endorsed for the first time.

Providing leadership for the school library on the national level is the professional organization, the American Association of School Librarians. Following the federally mandated National Commission on Libraries and Information Science's (NCLIS) report, *Toward a National Program for Library and Information Services: Goals for Action*, the AASL met with NCLIS staff for greater involvement in the work of the commission.[24] NCLIS subsequently appointed and subsidized a task force to clarify the media program's role within the national program of libraries and information science.

The report of the task force, *The Role of the School Library Media Program in Networking*, was approved by NCLIS in 1978 and published by the U.S. Government Printing Office.[25] The report offers recommendations and suggestions for implementing strong network systems as well as a section on networks involving school libraries currently in operation.

Until the 1970s, the trend was type-of-library networks; however, with formalized networks now taking the direction of multitype library systems, the school library has inevitably become involved along with the other libraries in details of governance and organizational setups of networks. Networking has impelled the school library to candid self-evaluation of programs in order to benefit from, as well as be able to contribute to, the larger community of libraries.

## PAST ACHIEVEMENTS AND PRESENT NEEDS

A study by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) documented both the achievements of school library media centers in the decade from 1964 to 1974 and the need for continued growth if school libraries are to function as a viable force in American public education.[26]

NCES conducted a survey of school library media center collections, personnel, and facilities in 1974 and compared the results with quantitative data gathered in 1964. The researchers then compared the 1974 data with guidelines presented in *Media Programs: District and School*. By using this technique of comparing the data collected in 1974 with both past statistics and accepted standards for excellence, the NCES study indicated clearly how much progress had been made in a very short time and how much effort and commitment is still needed to achieve quality school library media center service.

Progress made since the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act is impressive. School library media center service in 1974 was provided to 50 percent more public school children than was the case in 1964. Or, stated in terms of numbers of elementary and secondary school students, 14.6 million more children attended public schools that provided centralized library collections and services in 1974 than had attended such schools in 1964. The number of school library media centers increased during the decade, from approximately 56,000 in schools of 150 pupils or more to an estimated total of 74,725. The total number of public schools in 1974 was 89,000, and the aggregate fall semester enrollment was 45,053,000 students in both elementary and secondary schools. School library media centers were to be found in 84 percent of the public schools in the country. Thirty-nine out of forty public school children attended a school served by a school library media center. Most of the school children not receiving library services attended schools with fewer than seventy-five children per school. However, some of these small schools provided classroom collections of specialized materials as a substitute for centralized collections. The NCES study shows that virtually the entire public school population received school library media center services in 1974.

Now that the basic goal of establishing school library programs has been achieved, the school library media center community is emphasizing improvement of these programs. A fundamental basis for strengthening programs was the development of the standards published in 1975, *Media Programs: District and School*. The NCES study used this document as the indicator of needs in comparing the materials, services, and facilities provided by school library media centers in 1974 with the staff, collections, and space considered necessary to provide excellent services. Because funding for educational programs nationwide did not increase significantly

in the latter half of the 1970s, and in some communities actually decreased, estimates of the NCES study concerning school library media center programs in 1974 are probably quite accurate reflections of conditions in 1980.

*Media Programs: District and School* establishes guidelines for media programs at the district and school levels, as the title indicates. It also describes patterns and relationships for effective media programs at the regional and state levels. The thrust of these standards is qualitative in nature, with quantitative standards included to provide measurable criteria for the staff, collections, facilities, hours of service, and operating expenditures necessary to implement types of media programs essential for quality elementary and secondary education.

## STAFF

Excellent media programs can be achieved only with a highly qualified professional and support staff. The standards define the staffing patterns and responsibilities of media personnel based on general principles established as a guide for more specific staffing recommendations. These recommendations for media center staffing indicate needs according to the number of users — students, faculty, administrators, and others—served by the media program. The standards use 250 students as a base figure, with multiples thereof as the guideline for larger schools.

The standards recommend one professional staff member for each 250 students, a figure derived from an analysis of tasks to be performed and the time required to perform them. Schools with more than two thousand students, however, may be able to provide the professional competencies necessary to meet user needs with less than the recommended professional staff. Other schools may need to increase the number of media professionals because of factors such as a student body with special problems or an emphasis on media production services.

Two support staff members are recommended for each 250 students, one media technician and one media aide, but the number of support staff needed within each school varies. Support staff requirements are influenced by the services provided from the district media program and by differences in program emphasis in individual schools.

Staffing of school library media centers according to these recommendations for both professional and support staff was very rare in 1974 and undoubtedly remains so in 1980. The NCES study estimated that only forty schools out of a total of eighty-nine thousand met the 1975 quantitative standards for professional and support staff.

The crucial shortage was in support staff. Only 10 percent of the recommended support staff was provided in the elementary school library media centers and 15 percent of those for secondary school centers. Whereas the criterion given in the 1975 standards is for two support staff needed for each professional, the actual staffing in 1974 was a total of 39,000 support staff working with 62,700 professionals. Indicated needs nationwide would total 325,000 support staff. With actual support staffing at 39,000, shortages were estimated at 286,000 in 1974.

Professional staff shortages were also severe. Indicated need in 1974 was 162,500, but only 62,700 professionals were employed in school library media centers. The aggregate of professional staff shortages was nearly 100,000, of which 69,000 were in elementary schools. Actual staffing was less than one professional per school, or one per 720 pupils in elementary schools, as a national average. Staffing was better in secondary schools, but very little better, with an average of one professional per 675 students, or five professionals to four schools. Expressed as a percentage, professional staffing nationwide was at 39 percent of indicated needs.

A large number of schools, more than one-third of the total, reported professional staffing at 50 to 60 percent of the indicated needs. This low level of staffing could be a carryover from an earlier period when the school library was seen as a passive repository of information for occasional reference rather than as a school library media center at the hub of the school's educational program. In any event, the persistence of widespread staffing at low levels reflected at least in part the financial constraints within many school systems, constraints that continued throughout the 1970s.

## COLLECTIONS

*Media Programs: District and School* suggests the following guidelines for building school library media center collections:

*Books*—At least 20,000 items located in the school, or 40 items per user.

*Periodicals and newspapers*—50 to 175 titles.

*Pamphlets*—The type and quantity vary according to program needs.

*Microforms*—Types and quantity vary according to program needs.

*Filmstrips*—500 to 2,000 items, or 1 to 4 items per user.

*Slides and transparencies*—2,000 to 6,000 items, or 4 to 12 items per user.

*Graphics: Posters, art and study prints, maps, and globes*—800 to 1,200 items.

*16mm, Super 8mm sound films, and videotape*—access to a minimum of 3,000 titles.

*Super 8mm silent films*—500 to 1,000 items, or 1 to 2 per user.

*Sound recordings*—1,500 to 2,000 items, or 3 to 4 per user.

*Games and toys*—400 to 750 items.

*Models and sculpture*—200 to 500 items.

*Specimens*—200 to 400 items.

The standards also include recommendations for the equipment necessary to utilize audiovisual materials and the equipment needed to produce instructional materials locally.

School library media center collections in 1974 held about one-half of the print materials recommended in the 1975 standards, or about 520 million volume equivalents. The shortage of nonprint materials, including audiovisual materials, games, kits, realia, flashcards, and "all other," was much more acute than that of print materials. Only about 1 million of the 1 billion items indicated as needed were reported in the NCES survey. The average holdings of nonprint materials nationwide were only 9 percent of the indicated need.

The rate at which new materials were added to school library media center collections in 1974 was not encouraging. Acquisitions were 38 percent of indicated needs for print materials and 11 percent for nonprint materials. Acquisitions were generally about 10 percent of existing collections. For most school library media centers, these figures suggest replacement of print materials and a very low rate of buildup for nonprint materials. Any substantive improvement of collections is not possible with acquisitions remaining at this low rate.

## FACILITIES

Nationwide, shortages of space for school library media centers exceeded the space occupied in 1974, and this relationship was widespread by level of school and by state. School library media centers occupied 175 million square feet of space, 205 million short of the 380 million square feet needed to meet the criteria established in *Media Programs: District and School*.

## HOURS OF SERVICE

The encouraging statistic in the 1974 survey was hours of service. School library media centers generally met or exceeded the standard of thirty hours per week open to students. Only one-sixth of school library media centers, serving 11 percent of school children, did not meet this criterion. Fifty percent of the school population served by school library media centers had thirty-six or more hours of service. In secondary schools, 73 percent of the students had access to the school library media center at least thirty-six hours per week. However, more than 3,700 school library media centers, serving 1.14 million pupils, were open fewer than fifteen hours per week.

## OPERATING EXPENDITURES

Actual operating expenditures of school library media centers in 1974 were 7 percent of the suggested level. Only 22 percent of the school library media centers in the country even reached or exceeded 10 percent of the indicated need. As a result, only a very small fraction of the school population attended schools in which the school library media center was supported as recommended in the 1975 standards.

## MEETING PRESENT NEEDS

Although the quantitative standards necessary to provide quality media programs were not met nationwide in 1974, a number of schools, albeit a small percentage, did meet one or more of the standards at indicated levels of need.

Over 4,000 school library media centers serving 1.7 million school children were staffed to at least indicated needs in professional personnel. Most of these schools were small, however. The statistics showed that 5.6 percent of the schools were staffed at recommended levels, but these schools served only 4.4 percent of pupils enrolled in schools with school library media center services.

Approximately 4 percent of the schools held collections of print materials at least equal to the indicated need. These schools served 3.8 percent of the pupils served by school library media centers, indicating that these schools, too, tended to be small.

In all, 11 percent of school library media centers had as much or more space than recommended. But these schools served only 6.6 percent of the pupils receiving service. Again, it was the smaller-than-average schools that met criteria.

Although operating expenditures nationally were far below recommended budgeting, 2 percent of the schools surveyed reported operating expenditures of 30 percent or more of the indicated need. *Media Programs: District and School* recommends operating expenditures at 10 percent of the national per pupil operational cost (PPOC) as computed by the U.S. Office of Education. This recommendation, then, does not relate to size of school in the way that recommendations for professional staff and space do. Smaller schools do not tend to have a comparable built-in advantage. A budget for operating

expenditures that is well above the national average suggests a commitment on the part of the community and school administrators to provide excellent school library media center services. The schools that will provide leadership in the development of the new school library media center concept are probably among the 2 percent that are budgeting at a level of 30 percent of the indicated need for operating expenditures.

## THE SCHOOL LIBRARY MEDIA CENTER CONCEPT

The school library media center concept differs radically from the school library concept. The school library, no matter how excellent its staff, collections, and facility, is conceived as a support service to the instructional program. The school library media center is conceived as an integral resource central to the teaching/learning activities of the school.

Adopting this innovative concept requires a conscious commitment to provide adequate staff, materials, facilities, and operating budgets. The cost is much greater than the cost of maintaining the conventional teacher- and textbook-oriented method of instruction with a school library as a support service. Despite the high cost, a significant number of schools have adopted the concept and have implemented it to a substantial degree. The NCES study estimated that by 1974 the number of schools involved may have been as high as six to eight thousand. These schools may be able to provide the leadership for others that wish to convert their traditional school libraries to school library media centers.

## CURRENT TRENDS AND DEVELOPMENTS

The dramatic growth and expansion of school library media centers that had characterized the 1960s and early 1970s had ended by 1975. The latter half of the 1970s appeared to be a time for school media personnel to retain and consolidate gains made in the previous decade, but surface appearances can be deceiving. It was not merely a time to build defenses against retrenchment. It was a time to study problems confronting school library media centers, to develop systematic methods for planning and evaluating media programs, to update selection criteria, and to assess alternative administrative structures.

## RESEARCH

In recent years, the school library media profession has become increasingly aware of the need for a body of systematic theory constantly being expanded by research. In a review of selected research related to school library media centers, Barron divided the field into five primary areas of research: (1) school library media and its utilization; (2) influence of the media program; (3) analysis and evaluation of school library media programs; (4) the school library media specialist; and (5) role-perception studies. Although Barron concluded that neither the scope of topics studied nor the range of methodologies had increased greatly since earlier reviews of research, he felt that studies done between 1972 and 1976 indicated a maturing profession. He recommended the continuing involvement of practitioners, library media educators, and doctoral students in research activities.[27]

## SYSTEMATIC PLANNING AND EVALUATING OF MEDIA PROGRAMS

School library media specialists are attempting to communicate more effectively to administrators, teachers, students, the general public, and decision-makers concerning the contributions media programs can make to quality education. An essential first step in any plan to inform its constituency of the value of a program is to assess its effectiveness. Increasingly, media professionals are attempting to adopt a systematic approach to the planning and evaluation of media programs.[28] In doing so, they are defining the role of the school library media center, gathering data on which to base managerial decisions, and identifying strengths and weaknesses in the programs for which they are responsible.

## LIBRARY MEDIA CENTER MATERIALS AND COLLECTION-BUILDING POLICIES

The school library media center specialist must cope with two distinct sets of circumstances when he or she reexamines criteria for building the school library media center collection. The first of these circumstances is new types of library materials; the second is new points of view toward older materials.

New materials are available in greater variety than formerly. As noted above, the growth of educational technology has promoted the growth of new forms of media. At the same time, the subject matter presented in both print and nonprint forms has been extended to include topics previously considered either inappropriate for school children or beyond their ability to comprehend. Junior novels now deal with problems once considered taboo such as sexual relationships, divorce, child abuse, racial injustice, drug addition, and alcoholism. Books and other media in the content areas treat a wide range of humankind's accumulated knowledge in a

manner that indicates a new awareness of the interests and intelligence of children and young people.

Beginning with the civil rights movement in the 1960s, the society as a whole has become conscious of the limitations which the "American way of life" has placed upon the individual. These limitations are sometimes expressed in children's literature through negative stereotyping of fictional characters. In addition, some groups are omitted from children's books. Library media specialists and concerned citizens have been reexamining older materials, using new guidelines designed to identify stereotyping according to race, sex, age, mental or physical handicaps, social class, and other distinctive attributes. Professionals and laymen who are looking at older materials from this new point of view are doing so because they consider children's literature a potent, life-long influence on a person's attitudes and social values.

The new materials and enhanced social awareness exemplify the dynamic quality of American society. This dynamism necessitates continuing reexamination of selection policies and practices. For the school library media specialist, this means defining the technical quality for new media forms, establishing selection criteria for new content, and reevaluating older materials. Most difficult of all is reconciling the student's right to information with moral and social values that tend to limit free access to controversial materials.

## THE COMMUNITY/SCHOOL LIBRARY

The Community/School Library, also called the School/Public Library, is an alternative administrative structure that has been discussed in professional journals and implemented in many parts of the United States at various times since the turn of the century. Most of the older combined programs have been phased out, but new mergers took place in the 1960s and 1970s. Studies conducted in 1976[29] and in 1977-1978[30] concluded that the combined program presents a possible alternative to limited or nonexistent library service. The findings of both studies, however, indicated that no financial advantage resulted from this organizational pattern. The researchers recommended combined programs only in very small communities and then only if specified preconditions had been met.

## SUMMARY

The extraordinary growth of school libraries in the United States following World War II, and especially in the 1960s, resulted from a unique interaction of events. Both the American public and political leaders were concerned about quality in education. The school library profession had attained a degree of expertise that enabled it to provide leadership in school library development. The support of the Knapp Foundation provided the impetus for school library programs, while federal funding provided the means nationwide. Innovative instructional methods, the development of educational technology, diversity in library materials, and higher qualifications for school library media center professionals also contributed to the growth and expansion of school libraries.

By 1974, virtually all school children in the United States were served by a school library program. The need for the 1980s is to upgrade the quality of existing programs by increasing support and professional staffs, building adequate library media center collections, and improving facilities.

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